A close-up photograph of a green, succulent-like plant with many small, pointed leaves growing out of a bed of dark, coarse sand. The plant's stems are visible, appearing pale and fleshy. The background is a soft-focus view of the same sandy environment.

Unit 8

Plant Form and Function

Chapter 31: Plant Responses to Internal and External Signals

Overview: The Race to Live

- Young seedlings must outcompete their neighbors in the race for resources in order to survive
- Unlike animals, which respond through movement, plants must respond to environmental challenges by altering their growth and development

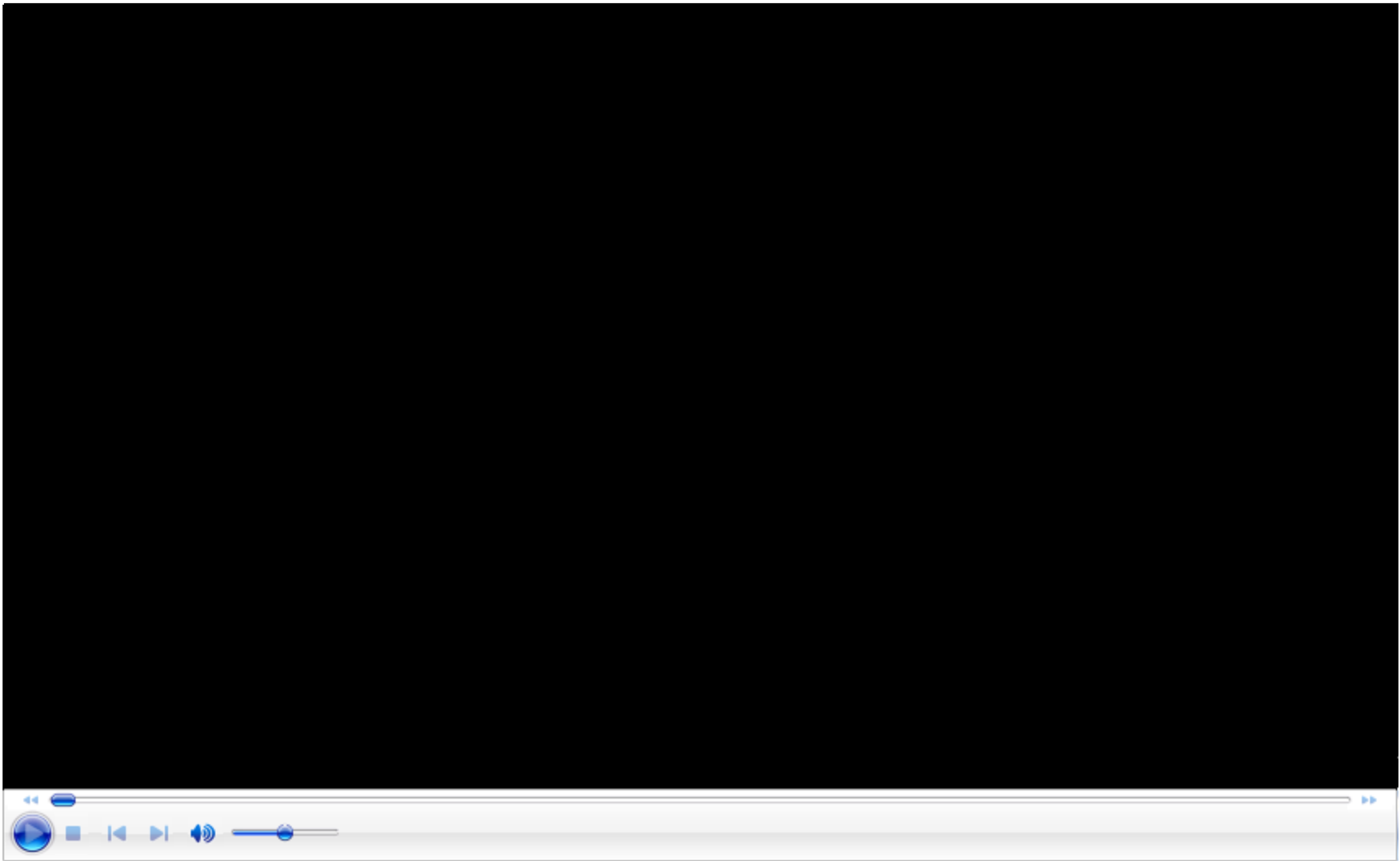
Concept 31.1: Plant hormones help coordinate growth, development, and responses to stimuli

- Plant **hormones** are chemical signals that modify or control one or more specific physiological processes within a plant
- Plant hormones are produced in very low concentration, but a minute amount can greatly affect growth and development of a plant organ
- Each hormone has multiple effects
- Multiple hormones can influence a single process
- Most aspects of plant growth and development are under hormonal control
 - Interactions between different hormones

The Discovery of Plant Hormones

- Any response resulting in curvature of organs toward or away from a stimulus is called a **tropism**
- The growth of a plant toward or away from light is called **phototropism**
 - Roots exhibit negative phototropism
 - Shoots exhibit positive phototropism
 - Directs shoot growth toward sunlight for photosynthesis
 - Cells on the darker side elongate faster than cells on the brighter side

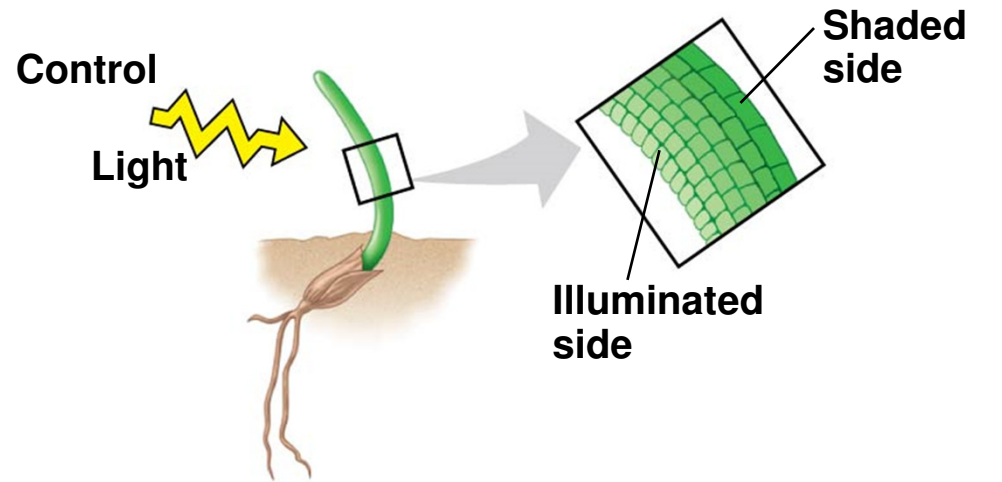
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- In the late 1800s, Charles Darwin and his son Francis conducted experiments on phototropism
 - They observed that a grass seedling could bend toward light only if the tip of the coleoptile was present
 - They postulated that a signal was transmitted from the tip to the elongating region
 - In 1913, Peter Boysen-Jensen demonstrated that the signal was a mobile chemical substance
 - In 1926, Frits Went extracted the chemical messenger for phototropism, auxin, by modifying earlier experiments



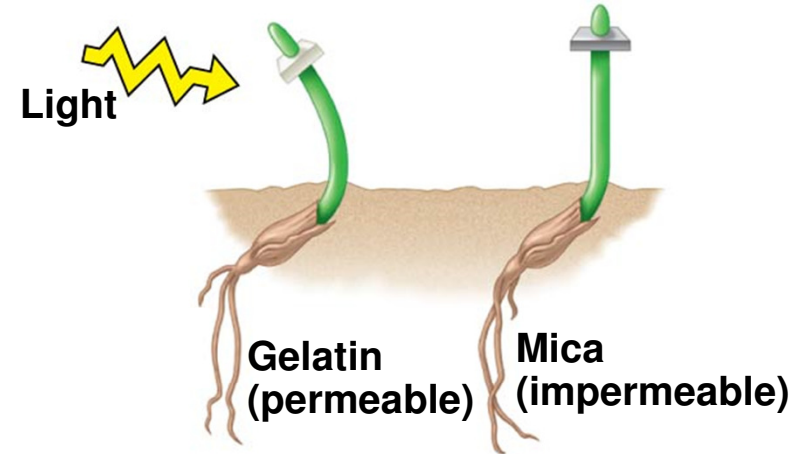
Video: Phototropism

Figure 31.2

Results



Boysen-Jensen



Darwin and Darwin

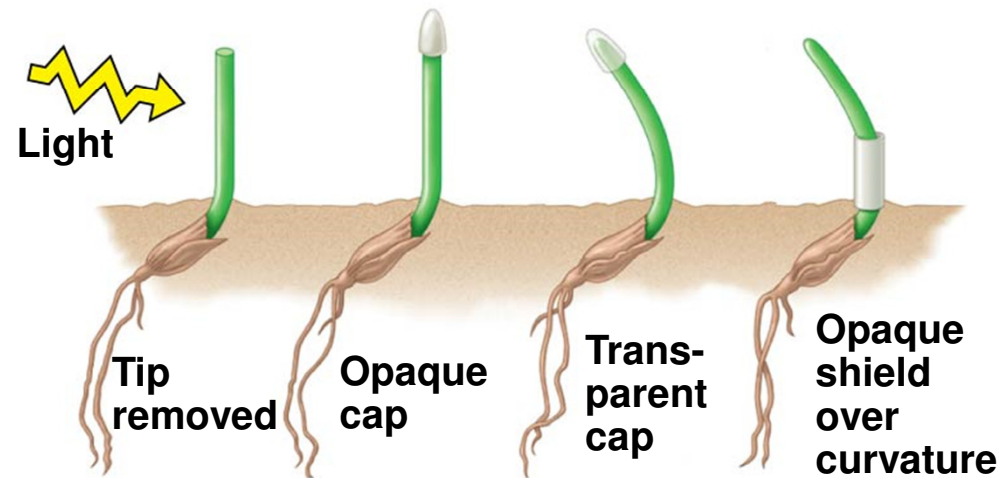
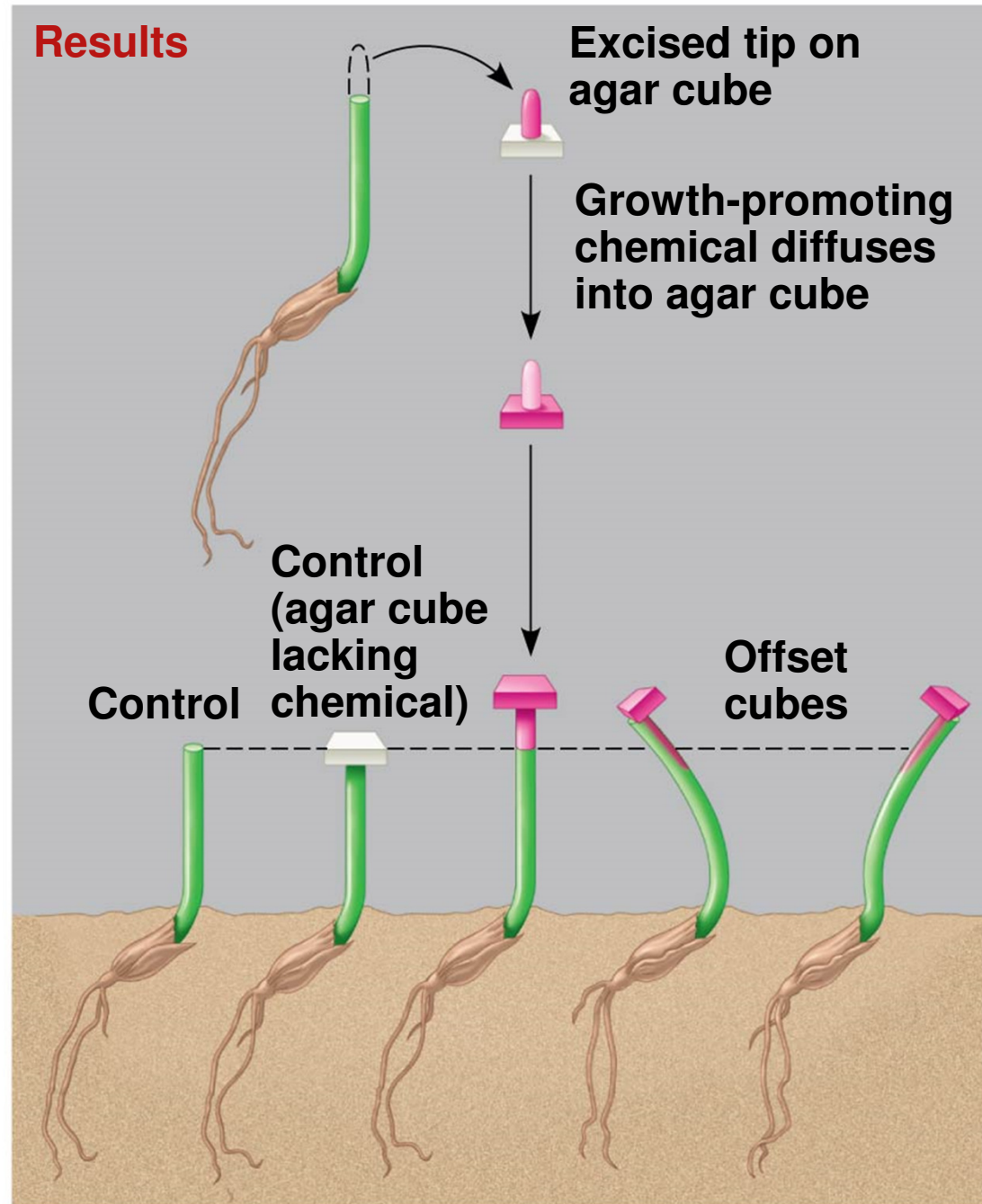


Figure 31.3



A Survey of Plant Hormones

- The major classes of plant hormones include
 - Auxin
 - Cytokinins
 - Gibberellins
 - Brassinosteroids
 - Absciscic acid
 - Ethylene

Auxin

- The term **auxin** refers to any chemical that promotes elongation of coleoptiles
- Auxin is produced in shoot tips and is transported down the stem
 - The apical bud is the primary source of auxin
- Auxin also alters gene expression and stimulates a sustained growth response

-
- Auxin also play a role in plant development
 - Polar transport of auxin controls the spatial organization of the developing plant
 - Reduced auxin flow from the shoot of a branch stimulates growth in lower branches
 - Auxin transport plays a role in phyllotaxy
 - Arrangement of leaves on the stem
 - If the apical bud is removed, the inhibition of axillary buds is removed
 - Plant becomes bushier

-
- Practical uses for auxins
 - Stimulates adventitious roots and is used in vegetative propagation of plants by cuttings
 - An overdose of synthetic auxins can kill plants
 - For example 2,4-D is used as an herbicide on eudicots
 - Tomato growers spray their plants with synthetic auxins to stimulate fruit growth

Cytokinins

- **Cytokinins** are so named because they stimulate cytokinesis (cell division)
 - Work together with auxin to control cell division and differentiation
 - Produced in actively growing tissues such as roots, embryos, and fruits
- Cytokinins also slow the aging of some plant organs

Gibberellins

- **Gibberellins** (GAs) have a variety of effects
 - Stem elongation
 - Stimulate stem and leaf growth by enhancing stem elongation AND cell division
 - Fruit growth
 - In many plants, both auxin and gibberellins must be present for fruit to develop
 - Seed germination
 - Release of gibberellins from the embryo signals seeds to break dormancy and germinate
- Gibberellins are produced in young roots and leaves

Figure 31.6



(a) Rosette form (left) and gibberellin-induced bolting (right)



(b) Grapes from control vine (left) and gibberellin-treated vine (right)

Brassinosteroids

- **Brassinosteroids** are chemically similar to cholesterol and the sex hormones of animals
 - Induce cell elongation and division in stem segments and seedlings
 - Slow leaf abscission (leaf drop)
 - Promote xylem differentiation

Abscissic Acid

- **Abscissic acid (ABA)** slows growth
- Two of the many effects of ABA include
 - Seed dormancy
 - Ensures that the seed will germinate only in optimal conditions
 - Drought tolerance
 - ABA accumulation causes stomata to close rapidly

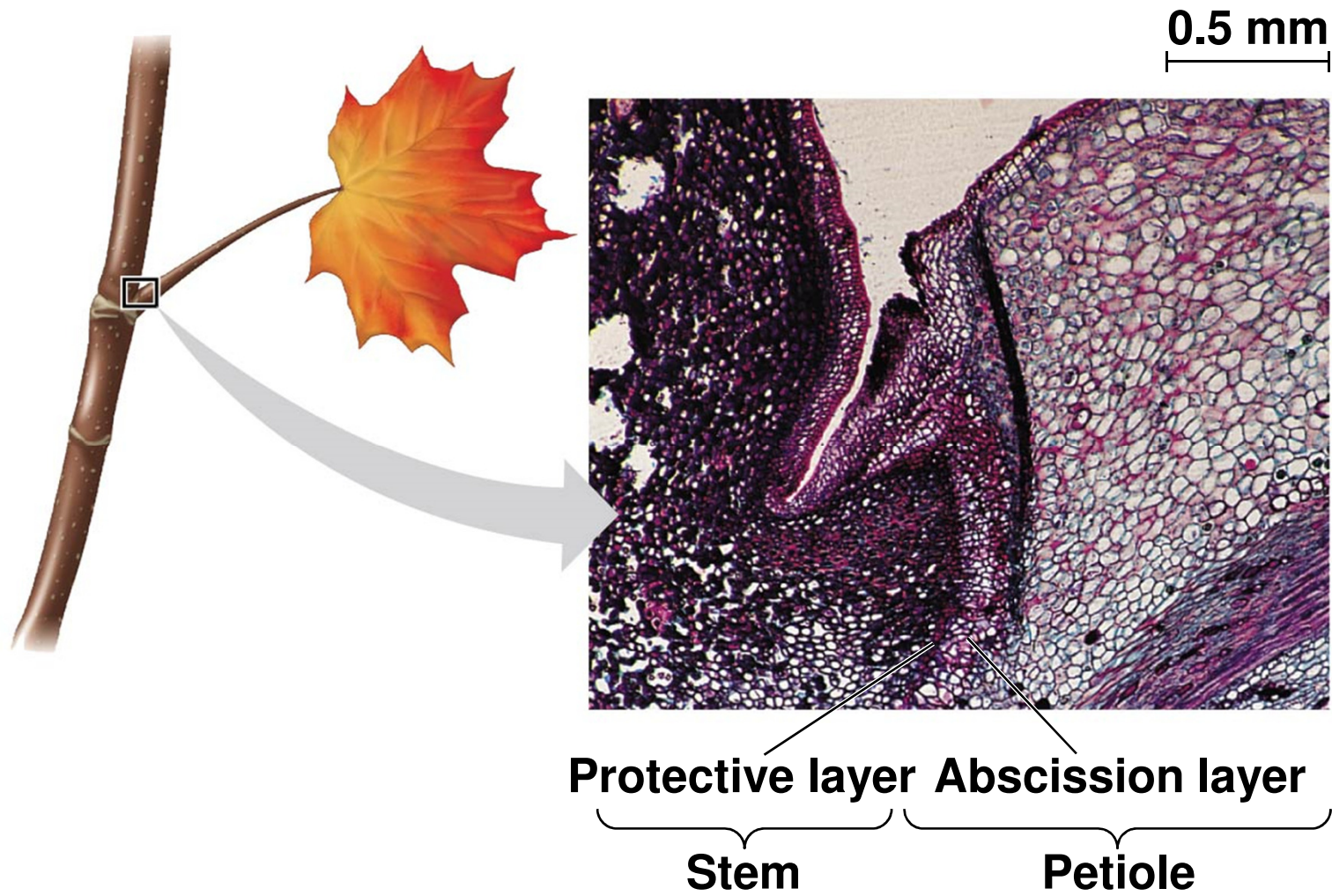
Ethylene

- Plants produce **ethylene** in response to stresses such as drought, flooding, mechanical pressure, injury, and infection
- The effects of ethylene include
 - Response to mechanical stress
 - Senescence
 - Leaf abscission
 - Fruit ripening

-
- Ethylene induces the **triple response**, which allows a growing shoot to avoid obstacles
 - The triple response consists of
 - A slowing of stem elongation
 - A thickening of the stem
 - Horizontal growth

-
- **Senescence** is the programmed death of cells or organs
 - A burst of ethylene is associated with apoptosis, the programmed destruction of cells, organs, or whole plants
 - A change in the balance of auxin and ethylene controls leaf abscission
 - The process that occurs in autumn when a leaf falls
 - Helps prevent desiccation during seasons when water is not as available to roots

Figure 31.10



-
- A burst of ethylene production in a fruit triggers the ripening process
 - Ethylene triggers ripening, and ripening triggers release of more ethylene
 - Ethylene is a gas and spreads from fruit to fruit
 - Fruit producers can control ripening by picking green fruit and controlling ethylene levels

Concept 31.2: Responses to light are critical for plant success

- Light triggers many key events in plant growth and development, collectively known as **photomorphogenesis**
- Light reception also allows plants to measure the passage of days and seasons

Photomorphogenesis

- Morphological adaptations for growing in darkness are called **etiolation**
 - Ex: Young potato
- After exposure to light, a potato undergoes changes called **de-etiolation**, in which shoots and roots grow normally
 - “Greening”

Figure 31.11



(a) Before exposure to light



(b) After a week's exposure to natural daylight

-
- Plants detect not only presence of light but also its direction, intensity, and wavelength (color)
 - A graph called an **action spectrum** depicts relative response of a process to different wavelengths
 - Action spectra are useful in studying any process that depends on light
 - Reveal that red and blue light are the most important colors in photomorphogenesis

-
- Different plant responses can be mediated by the same or different photoreceptors
 - There are two major classes of light receptors:
 - **Blue-light photoreceptors**
 - **Phytochromes**
 - Photoreceptors that absorb mostly red light

Blue-Light Photoreceptors

- Blue light initiates
 - Phototropism (movement in response to light)
 - Stomatal opening

Phytochrome Photoreceptors

- Phytochromes are pigments that regulate many of a plant's responses to light throughout its life
- These responses include
 - Seed germination
 - Shade avoidance

Phytochromes and seed germination

- Many seeds remain dormant until light conditions are optimal
- The photoreceptor responsible for the opposing effects of red and far-red light is a phytochrome
 - Red light increased germination
 - Far-red light inhibited germination
 - The final light exposure is the determining factor
 - The effects of red and far-red light are reversible

Figure 31.13

Results



Dark (control)



Red

Dark



Red

Far-red

Dark



Red

Far-red

Red

Dark



Red

Far-red

Red

Far-red

Phytochromes and shade avoidance

- The phytochrome system also provides the plant with information about the quality of light
 - Leaves in the canopy absorb red light
 - Shaded plants receive more far-red than red light
 - In the “shade avoidance” response, the phytochrome absorbs more red light when a tree is shaded
- This shift induces the vertical growth of the plant

Biological Clocks and Circadian Rhythms

- Many plant processes oscillate during the day
- Many legumes lower their leaves in the evening and raise them in the morning, even when kept under constant light or dark conditions
- **Circadian rhythms** are cycles that are about 24 hours long and are governed by an internal “clock”
 - The clock may depend on synthesis of a protein regulated through feedback control
- The factor that entrains the biological clock to precisely 24 hours every day is light
- Phytochrome conversion marks sunrise and sunset, providing the biological clock with environmental cues

Figure 31.15



Noon



10:00 PM

Photoperiodism and Responses to Seasons

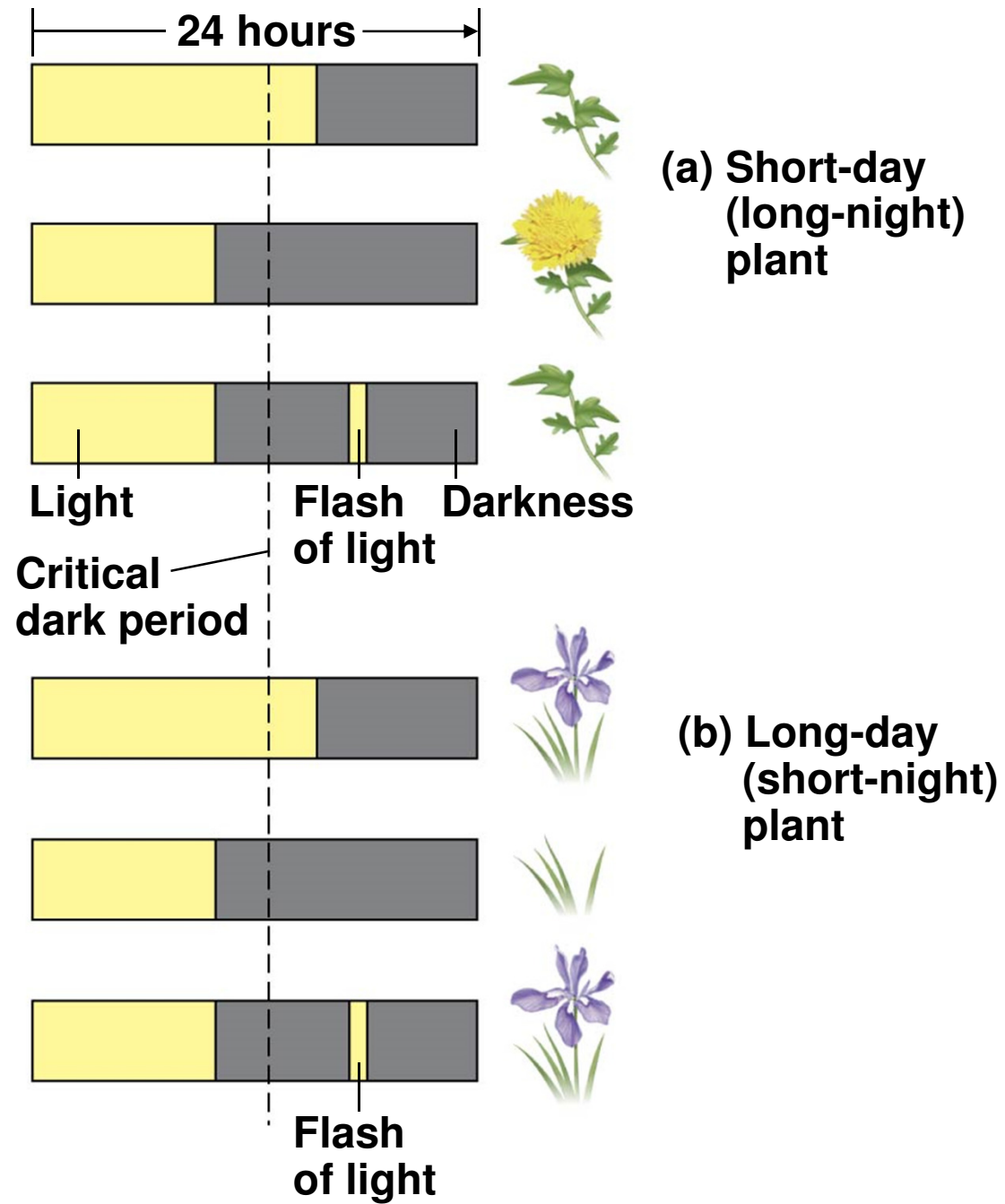
- Seed germination, flowering, and onset and breaking of bud dormancy are all stages that usually occur at specific times of the year
- Photoperiod, the relative lengths of night and day, is the environmental stimulus plants use most often to detect the time of year
- **Photoperiodism** is a physiological response to photoperiod
 - Ex: Flowering

Photoperiodism and Control of Flowering

- Some processes, including flowering in many species, require a certain photoperiod
- Plants that flower when a light period is shorter than a critical length are called **short-day plants**
 - Chrysanthemums, pointsettias
- Plants that flower when a light period is longer than a certain number of hours are called **long-day plants**
 - Spinach, radishes, lettuce, irises
- Flowering in **day-neutral plants** is controlled by plant maturity, not photoperiod
 - Tomatoes, rice, dandelions

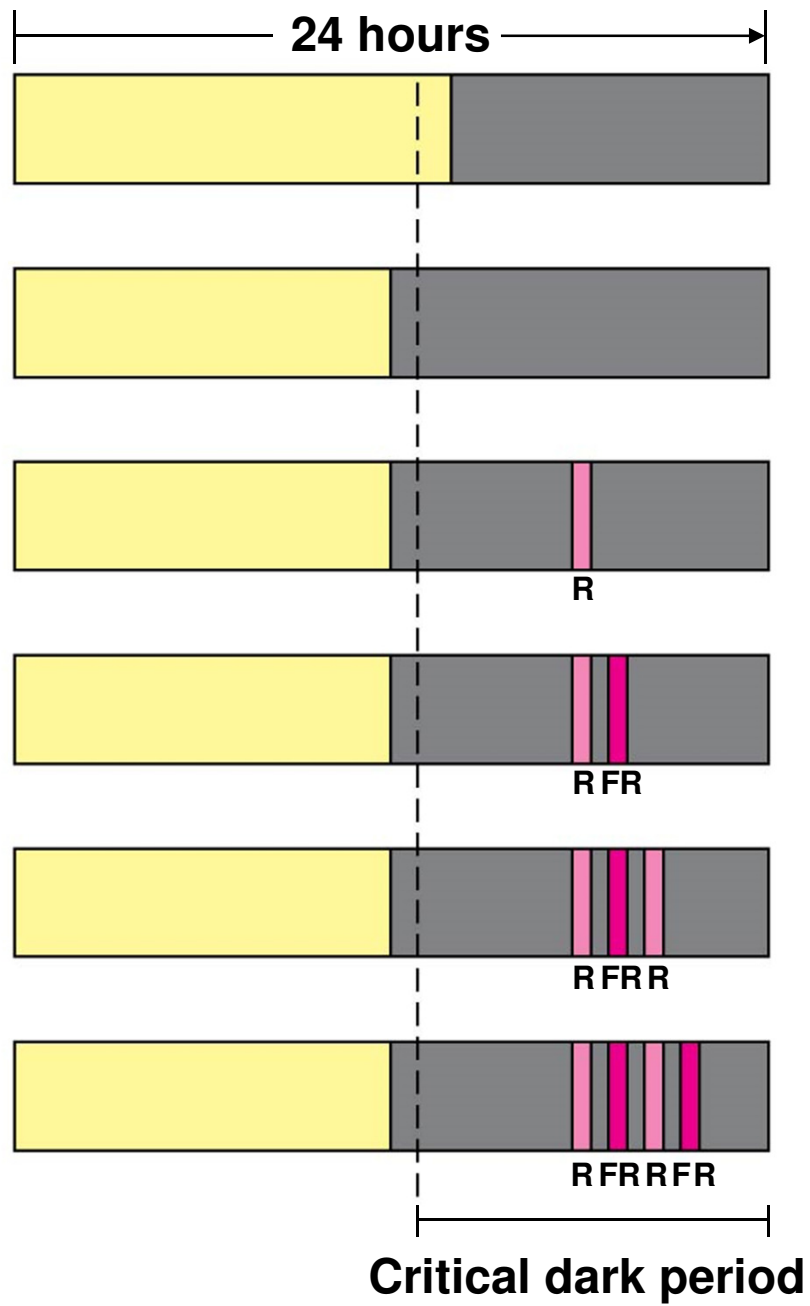
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- Researchers discovered that flowering and other responses to photoperiod are actually controlled by night length, not day length
 - Short-day plants are really long-night plants
 - Governed by whether the critical night length sets a minimum number of hours of darkness
 - Long-day plants are really short-night plants
 - Governed by whether the critical night length sets a maximum number of hours of darkness

Figure 31.16



-
- Red light can interrupt the nighttime portion of the photoperiod
 - A flash of red light followed by a flash of far-red light does not disrupt night length
 - Action spectra and photoreversibility experiments show that phytochrome is the pigment that receives red light
 - This knowledge is applied to produce flowers out of season

Figure 31.17



-
- Some plants flower after only a single exposure to the required photoperiod
 - Other plants need several successive days of the required photoperiod
 - Still others need an environmental stimulus in addition to the required photoperiod
 - For example, **vernalization** is a pretreatment with cold to induce flowering

A Flowering Hormone?

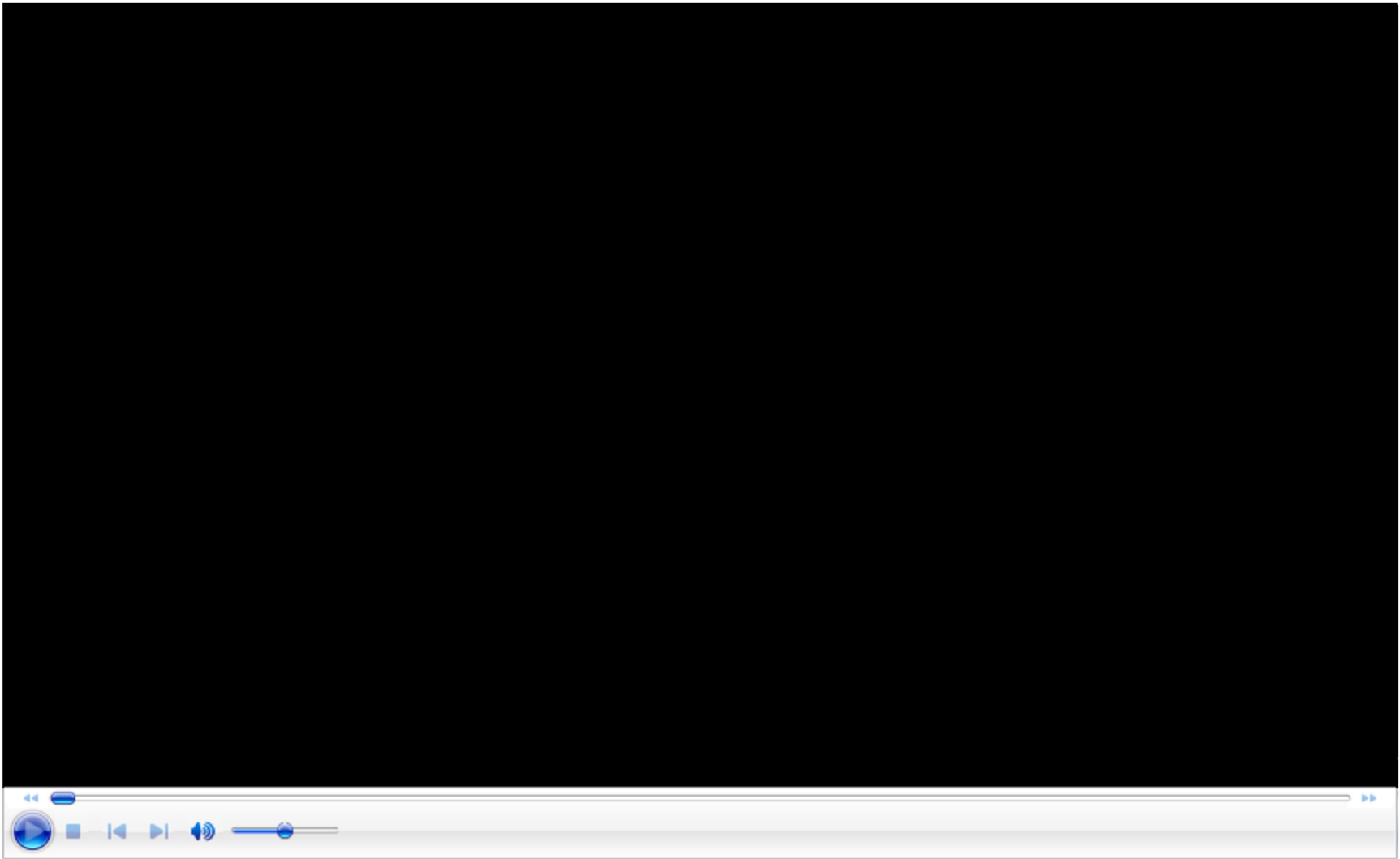
- Photoperiod is detected by leaves, which cue buds to develop as flowers
 - If all the leaves are removed, the plant is insensitive to photoperiod
- The flowering signal is called **florigen**

Concept 31.3: Plants respond to a wide variety of stimuli other than light

- Because of immobility, plants must adjust to a range of environmental circumstances through developmental and physiological mechanisms

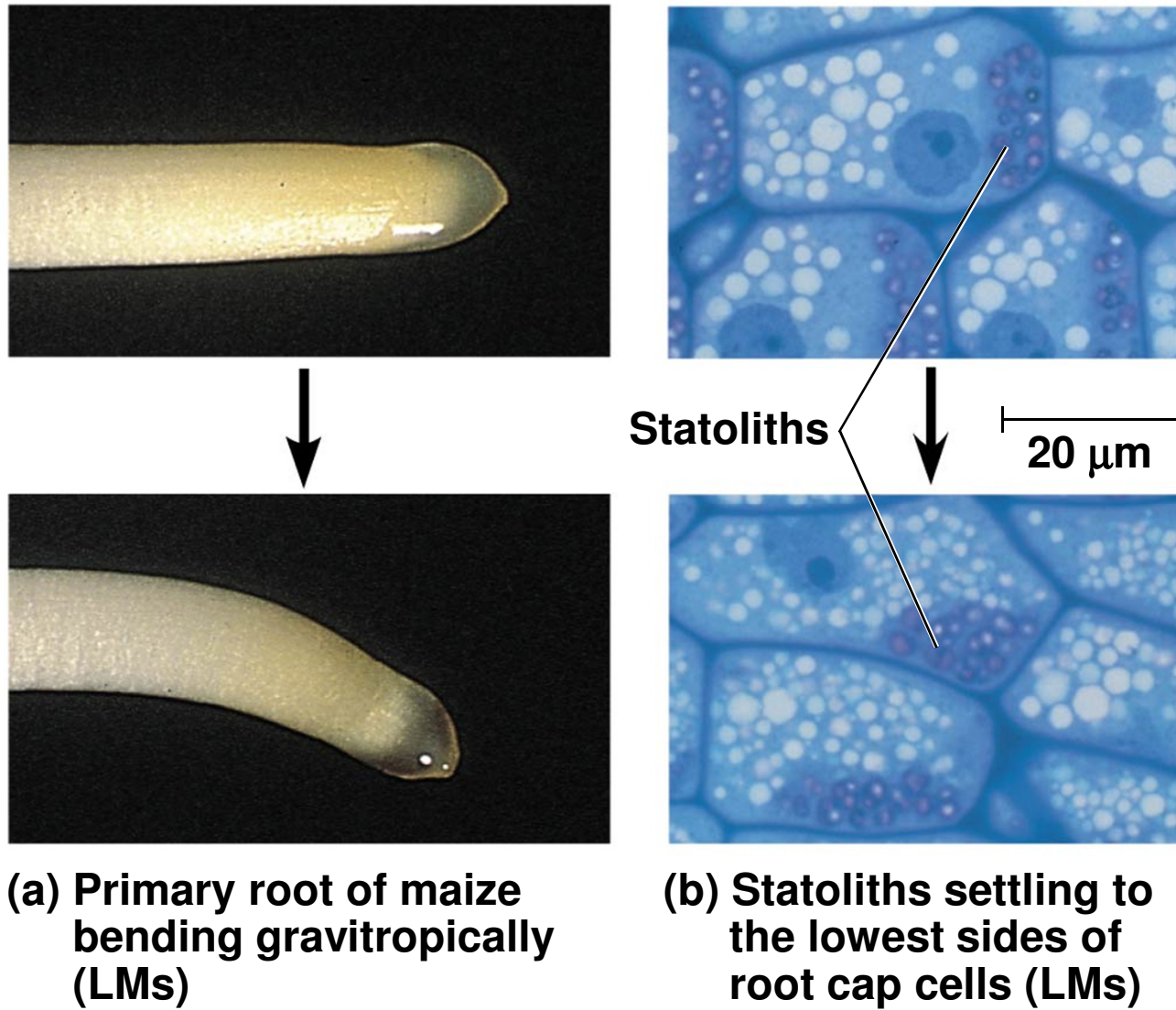
Gravity

- Response to gravity is known as **gravitropism**
 - Roots show positive gravitropism by growing downward
 - Shoots show negative gravitropism by growing upward
- Ensures roots grow into soil and shoot grows toward light, regardless of how the seed is oriented when it lands
- Plants may detect gravity by the settling of **statoliths**
 - Dense cytoplasmic components that settle under the influence of gravity to lower portions of cell



Video: Gravitropism

Figure 31.19

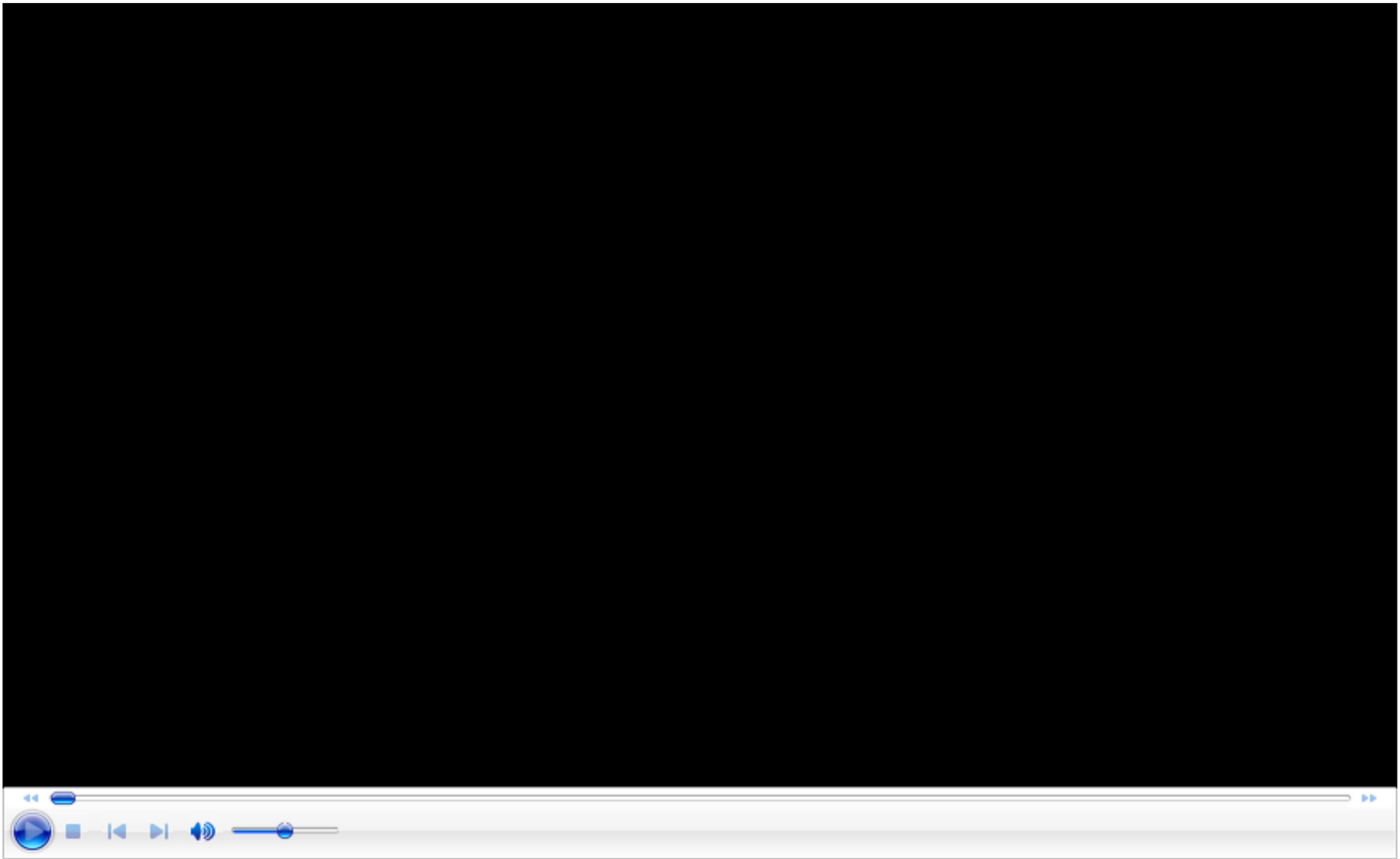


Mechanical Stimuli

- The term **thigmomorphogenesis** refers to changes in form that result from mechanical disturbance
- Rubbing stems of young plants a couple of times daily results in plants that are shorter than controls



-
- **Thigmotropism** is growth in response to touch
 - It occurs in vines and other climbing plants
 - The sensitive plant, *Mimosa pudica*, folds its leaflets and collapses in response to touch
 - Results from rapid loss of turgor in specialized motor cells
 - Rapid leaf movements in response to mechanical stimulation are examples of transmission of electrical impulses called **action potentials**



Video: Mimosa Leaf

Figure 31.21



(a) Unstimulated state (leaflets spread apart)



(b) Stimulated state (leaflets folded)

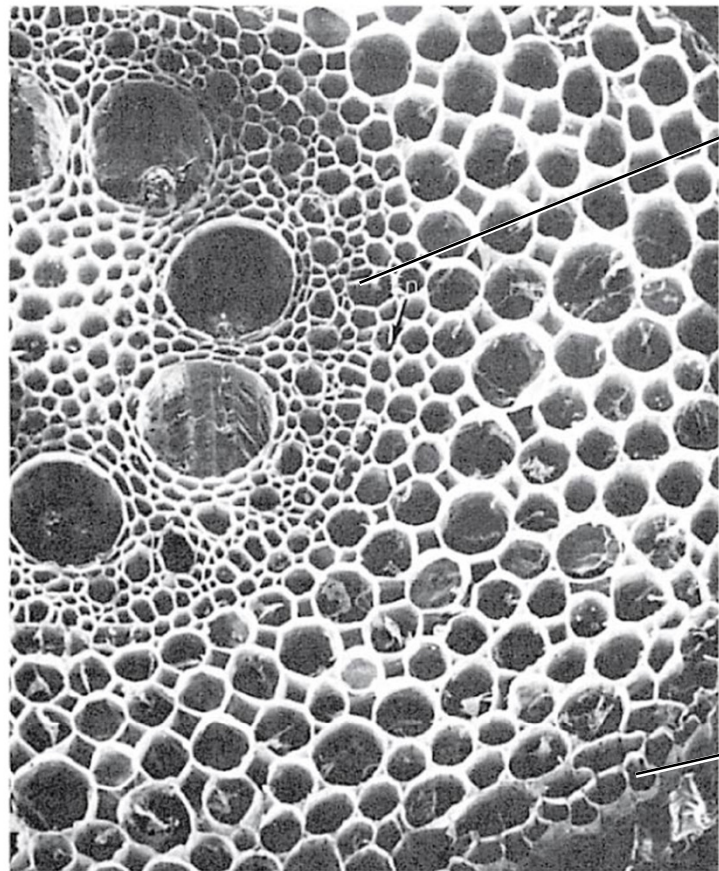
Environmental Stresses

- Environmental stresses have a potentially adverse effect on survival, growth, and reproduction
- Stresses can be **abiotic** (nonliving) or **biotic** (living)
 - Abiotic stresses include drought, flooding, salt stress, heat stress, and cold stress
 - Biotic stresses include herbivores and pathogens

Drought and Flooding

- During drought, plants reduce transpiration by
 - Closing stomata
 - Reducing exposed surface area
 - Shedding their leaves
- Enzymatic destruction of root cortex cells creates air tubes that help plants survive oxygen deprivation during flooding
 - “Snorkels”

Figure 31.22



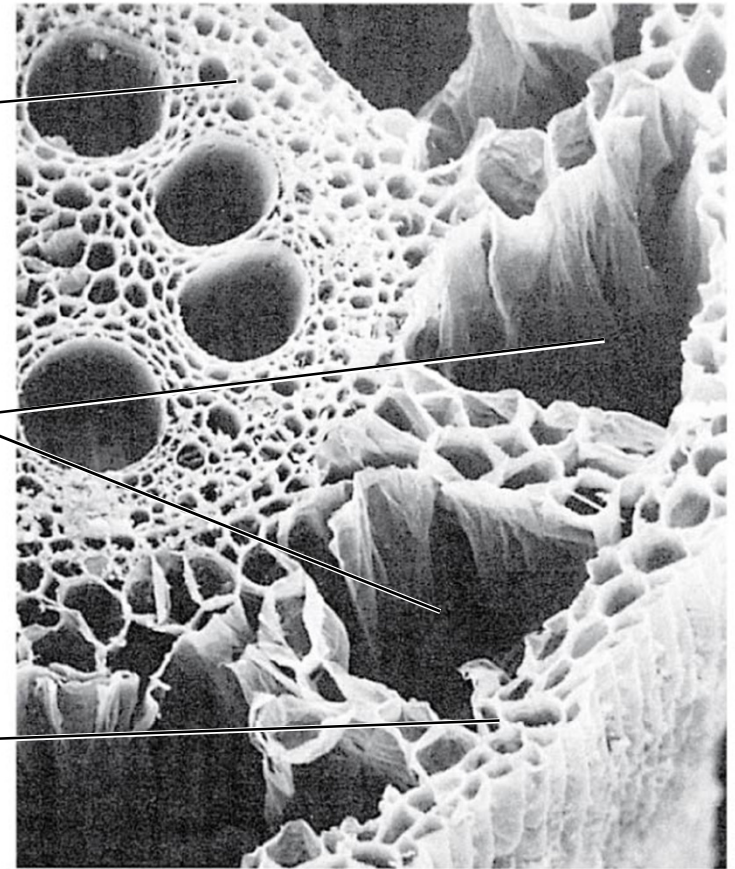
100 μm

(a) Control root (aerated)

Vascular
cylinder

Air tubes

Epidermis



100 μm

(b) Experimental root
(nonaerated)

Salt Stress

- Salt can lower the water potential of the soil solution and reduce water uptake
- Plants respond to salt stress by producing solutes tolerated at high concentrations
 - Keeps the water potential of cells more negative than that of the soil solution
- *Halophytes* are salt-tolerant plants
 - Adaptations such as salt glands that pump salts out across leaf epidermis

Heat Stress

- Excessive heat can denature a plant's enzymes
- Transpiration helps cool leaves by evaporative cooling
- **Heat-shock proteins** are produced at high temperatures
 - Help protect other proteins from heat stress

Cold Stress

- Cold temperatures decrease membrane fluidity
 - Altering lipid composition of membranes is a response to cold stress
- Freezing causes ice to form in a plant's cell walls and intercellular spaces
 - This lowers the extracellular water potential
 - Water leaves the cells
 - Leads to toxic solute concentrations in the cytoplasm
- Many plants, as well as other organisms, have antifreeze proteins that prevent ice crystals from growing and damaging cells

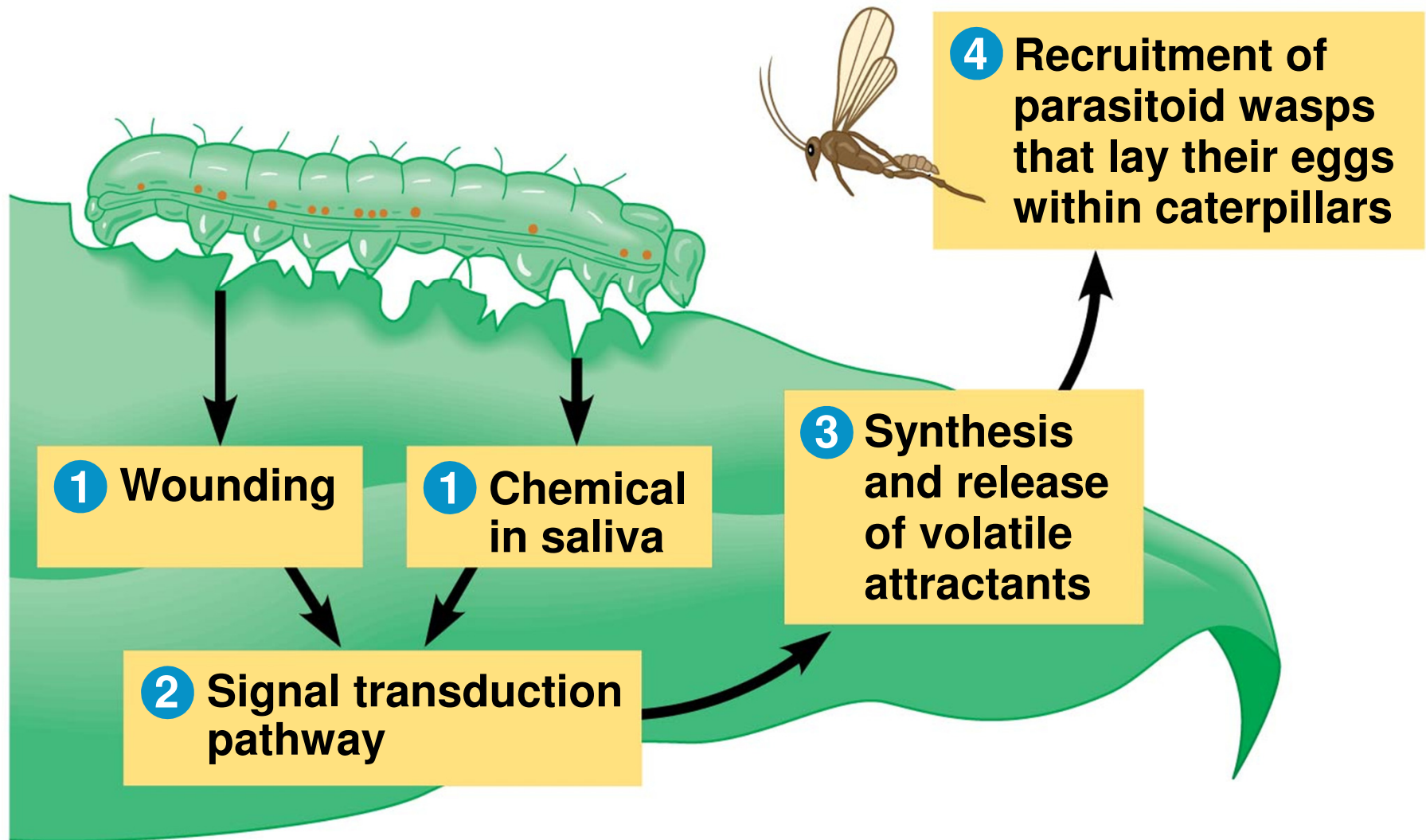
Concept 31.4: Plants respond to attacks by herbivores and pathogens

- Plant disease epidemics can lead to huge problems for people and the environment
 - Potato late blight caused Irish potato famine
 - Chestnut blight and sudden oak death altered communities
- Often the result of infected plants or timber being inadvertently transported around the world
- Through natural selection, plants have evolved defense systems to deter herbivory, prevent infection, and combat pathogens

Defenses Against Herbivores

- Herbivory, animals eating plants, is a stress that plants face in any ecosystem
- Plants counter excessive herbivory with
 - Physical defenses
 - Thorns and trichomes
 - Chemical defenses
 - Distasteful or toxic compounds
- Some plants even “recruit” predatory animals that help defend against specific herbivores
- Plants damaged by insects can release volatile chemicals to warn other plants of the same species

Figure 31.23



Defenses Against Pathogens

- A plant's first line of defense against infection is the barrier presented by the epidermis and periderm
- If a pathogen penetrates the dermal tissue, the second line of defense is a chemical attack that kills the pathogen and prevents its spread
 - Enhanced by the plant's ability to recognize certain pathogens

Host-Pathogen Coevolution

- A **virulent** pathogen is one that a plant has little specific defense against
- An **avirulent** pathogen is one that may harm but does not kill the host plant
- **Gene-for-gene recognition** is a form of plant disease resistance that activates plant defenses
- These defenses include the hypersensitive response and systemic acquired resistance

The Hypersensitive Response

- The **hypersensitive response**
 - Causes localized cell and tissue death near the infection site
 - Induces production of proteins that attack the specific pathogen
 - Stimulates changes in the cell wall that confine the pathogen
- Localized and specific

Systemic Acquired Resistance

- **Systemic acquired resistance**
 - Causes plant-wide expression of defense genes
 - Protects against a diversity of pathogens
 - Provides a long-lasting response
- Nonspecific